ADVANCING

WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP

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Full Length Research Paper

Women in the Workplace: An Empirical Analysis of the Challenge of the Workload

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Female employment throughout the world has witnessed a drastic paradigm shift. Several factors like improving literacy, change in the socio-economic scenario, and zest for financial independence and ambition are responsible for this changing trend. Education sector is the largest employer of women in India and is witnessing drastic changes. The present study examines how these changes have specifically impacted this sector. Work-life balance (WLB) of women working in various universities of Jammu and Kashmir (J&K) is examined. Special emphasis is laid on the work pressure women face in the course of trying to balance their professional life with their personal life. The method draws on the survey of 104 married female staff working on a substantive basis in higher education. The analysis of the paper measures the impact of workload on the work-life balance of women professionals. The results show that most working women are upset with the amount of workload in the universities. Women who work for longer hours tend to be more dissatisfied with their work-life balance. The study strongly suggests that academic expectations must be attuned with the demands of a woman's personal life or else a woman can never give her best!

Keywords: paradigm, work pressure, workload, dissatisfaction

Female workforce has grown rapidly in the past few decades worldwide. Rise in literacy, need for financial independence, changing socio-economic scenario and attitude are considered some of the reasons. However, a working woman often finds herself at cross-roads between her professional and personal obligations. Many women succumb to these enormous pressures and quit their jobs. According International Labor Organization (ILO), India Labour Market Update (July 2017), the labor force participation rate for women is one of the lowest in the world. According to the Global Gender Gap Report of 2017 produced by the World Economic Forum, the labor force participation rate for women in 2017 was only 28.5% compared to 82% for men. By 2025, $700 billion can be added to India's GDP if women's labor participation is increased by 10% (Woetzel et al., 2015).

Therefore, factors like better job opportunities, more educational opportunities for women, better family and social attitudes towards women can go a long way in increasing labor force participation rate for women. As a matter of fact, women employment is more or less dependent upon the inter-play of above-mentioned factors. It is pertinent to mention that the nature of a teaching job is taxing because it requires a deep commitment in terms of time requirements, skills and knowledge (Sadler, 2010). All these requisites can sometimes adversely affect the other important aspects of a woman's life. Working women often find themselves trying to optimize their time and efforts vis-à-vis to the divergent demands of work and life (Hildebrandt, 2006). The increasing career graph of women is a testimony to this fact and as a consequence work-life balance is a matter of serious concern. Philipsen and Bostic (2010) support this fact by providing a fresh perspective on the career graph of women and its collision with their work-life balance. The authors report on the experiences of women at early, mid and late career stages and strongly stress on the need to strive for a healthy work-life balance.

According to the Quarterly Employment Survey (QES) released by Labour Bureau of India for FY-2017; women had a higher share of employment in education sector with 24.47 lakh workers. The survey covered major 8 sectors and 18 sub-sectors of Indian economy namely construction, manufacturing, transport, trade, education, health, IT and BPO, accommodation

and restaurant (The Indian Express, 2019). In the light of the above facts, education sector employs a significant number of women. Henceforth, their work-life balance equation is a matter of paramount importance.

The higher education sector in India has witnessed a dramatic change. Focus has been on increasing student enrollment, privatization of education, employment generation in addition to improving the overall quality and standards. Since, education is a service sector with stakeholders like students, parents, employers, society and other broad forces; employees are often under the pressure of tremendous expectations from all these quarters. The current era is an era of knowledge economy and is fueled by teaching, research, collaborations, project work, workshops, seminars and better curriculum from various colleges and universities. The quest to grow and flourish has changed the culture and working pattern of every educational institute and has more or less molded it on lines of corporate culture. Undoubtedly, there have been many positive takeaways from corporations but elements like long working hours, deadlines, work pressure etc. have also made inroads into higher education. This has further burdened female employees who often find themselves unable to cope up with the unprecedented pressures of many roles and responsibilities they have to perform.

The picture of Female Labor Force Participation does not look very promising in the developing world. Sorsa et al. (2015) were puzzled that despite sturdy growth, female labor force participation is on a decline over the past decade. Women labor participation can induce inclusive growth; however, the labor force participation rate of women does not look good. A report by International Monetary Fund (IMF) titled 'Women Workers in India: Why So Few Among So Many?' finds that India has one of the lowest female labor force participation among peer countries (Das et al., 2015). According to Annette Dixon, World Bank South Asia Vice President, "In 2012, only 27 percent of adult Indian women had a job, or were actively looking for one, compared to 79 percent of men. In fact, almost 20 million women had dropped out of the workforce between 2005 and 2012. This is equivalent to the entire population of Sri Lanka. India ranks 120 among 131 countries in female labor force participation rates and rates of gender-based violence remain unacceptably high. It's hard to develop in an inclusive and sustainable way when half of the population is not fully participating in the economy. At 17% of GDP, the economic contribution of Indian women is less than half the global average, and compares unfavorably to the 40% in China, for instance. India could boost its growth by 1.5 percentage points to 9 percent per year if around 50% of women could join the work force."

Literature Review

Numerous scholars have defined work-life balance in different ways. Clark and his co-authors define work-life balance in simple terms as "equilibrium or maintaining overall sense of harmony in life" (Clark et al., 2004, p. 121-140). The construct

has been modified gradually and for some the term 'balance' means "mutual reinforcement of the two spheres, such as work–personal life integration, work–life articulation, or work–personal life harmonization" (Crompton & Brockman, 2006). Work-life balance of employees is measured by three parameters: (a) working time arrangements in terms of total working hours and flexibility; (b) for those with parenting or other care responsibilities, parental leave entitlements in terms of maternity, paternity leaves etc.; and (c) child care provisions (McDonald et al., 2005). According to Grzywacz and Carlson (2007), work life balance is "an accomplishment of different roles related to expectations that are shared or negotiated between an individual and role-related partners" (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007, p. 455-471). Researchers have further explored the concept of Work-Life Balance, increasing the necessity of understanding some holistic definitions also. Kalliath and Brough (2008) define work-life balance as "a balance among six factors related to roles, such as multiplicity, equity, level of satisfaction, fulfilment of role salience, conflict and facilitation, and perceived control between multiple roles" (Kalliath & Brough, 2008). Some researchers define work-life balance in an absolutistic way and press on the requirement of adopting a situational perspective to understand the construct. Definitions framed from a situational point of view imply that meaning of work-life balance varies person to person. In other words, depending upon personal context, the definition of work-life balance can vary according to life-stage, income level, gender or family structure (Reiter, 2007).

Valcour (2007) examined the relationship of work-life balance with work hours, job complexity and control over work time; and found an association suggesting that job characteristics influences an individual's work-life balance. Conversely, factors like high work pressure, unsupportive management, long working hours and less control over one's workload have a negative effect on work-life balance (Allan, Loudoun, & Peetz, 2007).

Women have to face unique challenges in balancing the opposing demands of their work and life aspects as they are supposed to fulfill so many additional roles like the role of a wife, mother and home-maker. Combing a career with marriage often results in uncertainty. This ambivalence is further heightened by the birth of children. Marriage, children and the load of other responsibilities; all adversely affect a woman's career prospects as well as progression (Saleem et al., 2014). Research indicates that women are less satisfied with work-life balance then men (Tomer et al., 2015). Gender discrimination over-burdens women with tasks which ideally should have been divided between the sexes. This negatively affects a woman's satisfaction with work-life balance (Tomer et al., 2015). Thus, female employees often face difficulties in achieving a healthy work-life balance (Rehman & Roomi, 2012). Creating equilibrium between their personal and professional roles often creates conflicts (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Studies have indicated that women need flexibility and control over their

work and prefer to start their own businesses (Agarwal and Lenka, 2015).

Women academicians view about their work-life balance is heavily influenced by their socio-cultural life and attitudes about paid-work and unpaid care (Toffoletti & Starr, 2016). The problem of work-life balance, particularly for women is acknowledged by many studies and a lot of research has been done on women in academics. However, there is a paucity of research on women in higher education sector (Bradley, 2000). This sector remains largely uninvestigated and merits attention. Therefore, despite of the incredible progress women have made, there are areas where their growth has been limited. Better work-life balance practices will ensure an appropriate presence and participation of women in the higher echelons of education.

Methods

The present study included the female staff at three universities in Jammu and Kashmir (J&K). The state presents a dismal picture of female employment percentage which increased from 12.3% to 16.4 % during 2012-14; however, it fell sharply to only 7.9% during 2015-2016 (Labour Bureau, Ministry of Labour and Employment, 2016).

Many factors, including non-economic and social factors can be held responsible for this decline (Swain & Wallentin, 2008). In this context, the number of women working in higher education is lower than their male counterparts (Beede et al., 2011). The respondents were limited to female employees in the largest universities of the state in terms of student enrollment. Therefore, the top three large universities have been selected. Working in a large institute may also mean a higher level of work pressure which in turn has an impact on work-life balance (White et al., 2003). Frone et al. (1992) suggested that factors like work pressure and work overload may cause interference between work and family roles. Hence, concepts under investigation are expected to manifest the challenges of work load especially work pressure and working hours on the work-life balance of working women.

According to Toffoletti and Starr (2016), married women in academia tend to experience additional hurdles that exert a negative influence on their work-life balance. Therefore, the scope was limited to married female staff working on substantive basis to avoid any significant differences in faculty roles in terms of marital status and nature of appointment. Furthermore, only permanent married teaching staff was selected as the respondents for this study. Preliminary inquiries at the offices of these universities indicated that the total number of female teaching staff in these universities was approximately 200. Of which only 157 could be contacted for the survey, and 110 completed responses were collected within the target time, wherein 6 responses were rejected because of incomplete data fragments. Therefore, 104 responses were considered suitable for data analysis. The instrument used for data collection is described in the section following later.

Objectives and Hypotheses of the Study

The primary objective of this article is to explore the status of work-life balance, and the challenges and problems encountered by female staff at various universities in J&K in terms of work load. The secondary objective was to investigate how in particular work load is a significant challenge in terms of working hours and work pressure.

The following hypotheses were formed to explore the context of female employees at various universities of J&K.

H1: Do factors like working hours and work pressure influence work-life balance?

H2: Are demographic factors crucial in influencing work-life balance?

Instrumentation

The items in the questionnaire used the Likert Scale response (1= strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). The instrument included the following two sections:

(A) Work Related information such as extra hours of work done, whether additional work is taken home, energy level at the end of the end, ability of manage multiple projects/deadlines and work pressure experienced.

(B) Demographic information including age group, number of children, designation, work experience etc.

Data Analysis and Interpretations

Sample characteristics.

In the sample, 5%, 44%, 19% and 32% respondents were in the age group of less than 30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years and above 50 years respectively. Among the respondents, 17.1%, 23.7%, 22.7% and 36.8% had a teaching experience of up to 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years and above 15 years respectively. Almost half i.e. 42% had one child where as 46%, 12% had two and more than two children respectively. The respondent sample had the following designations; Assistant Professors (66%), Associate Professors (13%), Professors (14%), Administrators (3%) and Others (4%) (see Table 1).

Among the respondents in the sample, 57.2% worked for extra hours, where as 49.5% took additional work home. Only 14% respondents indicated that they feel energetic at the end of the day. Moreover, 34.6% of the respondents indicated that they cannot manage multiple projects where as 26.5% respondents were unable to meet prescribed deadlines. An overwhelming 55.4% feel pressurized while working on a deadline. The data has been presented in the following figure:-

Table 1

Sample Characteristics

Demographic Variable		Percentage
Age	Less than 30	5.0
	31-40	44.0
	41-50	19.0
	Above 50	32.0
Teaching Experience	Up to 5 years	17.1
	6-10	23.7
	11-15	22.7
	Above 15 years	36.8
Number of Children	None	0.0
	One	42.0
	Two	46.0
	More than two	12.0
Designation	Assistant Professors	66.0
	Associate Professors	13.0
	Professors	14.0
	Administrators	3.0
	Others	4.0

Figure 1

Title of Figure 1
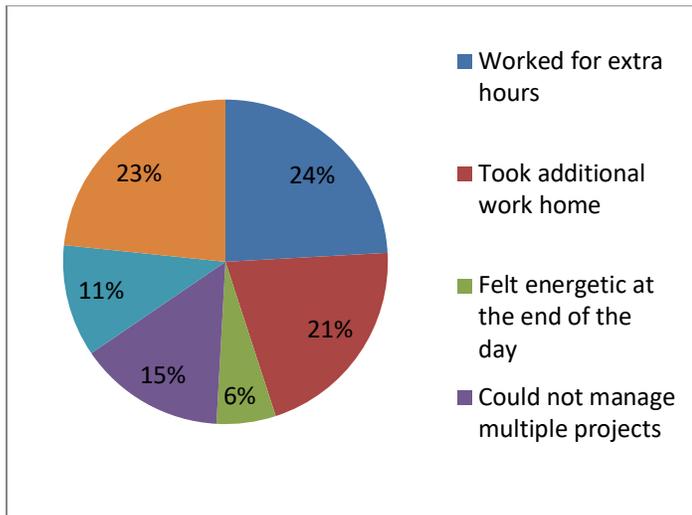
Data Analysis

For testing the hypothesis and deriving meaning from the data, data analysis has been done. This enabled extracting useful information and reaching to clear conclusions. The data collected was coded and analyzed wrt work load.

Consistent with the hypothesis, analysis provided enough empirical support to various assumptions made. The results showed a spillover between work and family due to workload.

Validity and Reliability

The items in the questionnaire were prepared after conducting a through literature review on the subject. The questionnaire was also adapted as per nature of the current study. The issue of determining the appropriateness of the questionnaire to be able to measure the construct of work-life balance was also discussed with a few experts in the field of marketing, human resources, english and psychology. Discussions were also held with some respondents.

The reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha test. The test result (Cronbach's alpha = 0.745, and number of items = 50) indicates that items used in the current study were reliable for measuring work-life balance as a construct. The generally acceptable value of Cronbach's alpha is 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951); however, it is better to have its value close to 0.80 (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 2

Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.745	50

Similarly, Table 3 presents the results of Validity Analysis and the results indicate that the items have sound validity parameters.

Table 3

Validity Analysis

Constructs/ Factors		SFL	AVE	MSV	CR
1.	Workload	.813	.621	0.371	.835
2.	Work-Life Balance	.817	.677	0.241	.805

The results show SFL (Standard Factor Loadings), AVE (Average Variance Extracted), MSV (Maximum Shared Variance) and CR (Composite Reliability) of various constructs. In order to establish the convergent validity of the scale, AVE should be more than 0.5 and SFL greater than 0.6 (Greene, 2008). It is observed from the above table; all the given constructs have satisfied the requisites confirming convergent validity. In order to establish Discriminant Validity, MSV must be less than AVE (Lucas, Diener & Suh, 1996). The same has been observed in our case (see Table 2). Henceforth, reliability analysis suggests that items in the questionnaire are convincing enough to enable the measurement of the said constructs correctly.

Work-Life Balance and the Challenge of Work Load

The present study hypothesized that work load has an impact on the Work-Life Balance of working women. Table 4 presents the mean scores. The test results indicate that there is a negative impact of work load on work-life balance of working women.

Table 4

Impact of Workload on Work-Life Balance of Working Women

Independent variable	Dependent variable Work-Life Balance	Beta	R^2
Work Hours	- .274[*]	.249	
Work Pressure	-.326[**]	.231	.374
Overall Workload	-.565[**]	.374	

*p < .001; ** p < .01; ns = not significant*

As can be observed from the above table, all the antecedents of work-life balance for workload explain a variance of (R^2=0.374) in the construct of Workload. The more significant antecedent is Work Hours(β=.249), followed by Work Pressure (β=.231). Also, there is a highly significant negative relationship between workload and work-life balance(p=-.565). Findings by Wirtz, Nachreiner & Rolfes (2011), Omar, Mohd & Ariffin (2015) & Skinner & Pocock (2008) also arrive at a statistically significant negative association between workload and work-life balance.

Descriptive Statistics of Responses

Among the respondents, 52.7% reported that they work for extra hours to get work done; 45.9% take additional work to home; just 18% respondents reported that they felt energetic at the end of the day; 36.4% reported that they were not able to manage multiple projects; 54.5% reported that they felt pressurized while working on a deadline; however a considerable 76.5% feel successful in managing home and work demands; 81% reported that they were happy with the contributions that they make towards home and family; 60.3% reported that they had time to reach their personal as well as professional goals satisfactorily; and 67.7% reported that they were satisfied with the way they divided time between work and personal life. This data indicates that work load is a dominant predictor of work-life balance. Most individuals find work load too challenging or over-whelming. Unmanageable work load is bound to create an imbalance in the work and non-work equation of an employee.

As observed in Table 5, among the items in the questionnaire regarding Work Load, the descriptive statistics indicate that the minimum value was 8 and the maximum score was 24 with a mean of 17.03 and standard deviation was 2.751 for the sample size. The responses for work-life balance indicates a minimum and maximum score varied from 3 to 22 and the mean was 9.88. Standard deviation for the sample is 2.959.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Responses for Workload and Work-Life Balance.

Construct	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Workload	104	8	24	17.03	2.751
Work Hours	104	3	11	5.35	1.982
Work Pressure	104	3	19	12.77	2.220
Work-Life Balance	**104**	**3**	**22**	**9.88**	**2.959**

This article reports the comparison of the results of survey data in 1988 with the replication using the same survey instrument in 2018. The principle objective is to examine changes in the description of male and female managers in the 30-year period made by undergraduate business majors.

There is an abundance of research examining descriptions of male and female managers starting with V.E. Schein in 1975 when she developed the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) Her findings showed that descriptions of men and managers were more similar than the descriptions of women and managers. In her replication in 1975, she used middle-level managers as her focus. Once again, the description of males and middle-level managers were more alike than descriptions of women and middle managers.

Research suggests that these stereotypes are not changing over time. (Bajdo, 2005; Tomkiewicz & Adeyemi Bello, 1995; Noris & Wylie, 1995; Massengel & DiMarco, 1979;

Research suggests that these stereotypes are not changing over time. (Bajdo, 2005; Massengel & DiMarco, 1979; Schein, Mueller & Jacobson, 1989; Noris & Wylie, 1995; Tomkiewicz & Adeyemi Bello, 1995). Dubno (1985) found no significant changes over an eight-year period. Powell et al. (2002) and Powell & Butterfield (1979) studied managerial stereotypes among students for almost three decades. Respondents were asked to describe good managers by rating the importance of a number of personality traits. The results found in 2002 were not much different from the results found in 1979 and 1989. Students defined good leadership with masculine characteristics and believed that female traits were irrelevant or even harmful for good leadership. Other studies by Huckle (1983) and Stevens (1984) also provided evidence that traditional sex-role expectations still existed.

This current research represents a 30-year longitudinal investigation (1988 to 2018) to examine the extent gender stereotypes and perceptions of managers have changed. The methodology and results from the earlier study were published in Sex Roles (Frank, 1988) and were used as the basis for this replication.

The original research questions were:

1) To what extent do college students perceive that women are accepted as managers?

2) What are the significant differences, if any, in descriptions of male and female

managers?

3) What are the gender preferences for bosses, if any, when given the choice to choose   for homogeneous and mixed gendered groups?

The objective of the current study is to compare the results of the two investigations conducted three decades apart regarding college students' perceptions and attitudes towards women in management. Three new research questions have been formulated:

1) To what extent have college students' perceptions changed regarding the level of acceptance of women as managers?
2) How have descriptions of male and female managers been modified over this 30-year period?
3) How have gender preferences for bosses changed for respondents?

Methods

Subjects

1988. Respondents were all upper-level business undergraduates enrolled in management courses at Southern Connecticut State University and at Baruch College – The City University of New York during the 1986 -1987 academic year.

2018. Students in upper-level undergraduate business courses at Southern Connecticut State University were requested to complete the attitude survey on a voluntary basis. Students were told the survey link would be found online in the weekly course folder in Blackboard Learn 9. To encourage participation, the announcement noted the drawing of 15 Target $10 gift cards.

The demographic sections of both instruments were the same with questions regarding gender, age, marital status, ethnic group, and if they had ever worked for a female boss.

Survey Instrument

1988. The hard copy survey was six pages long and required about 25 minutes to complete. The majority of the questions were answered on a 10-point Likert scale, where the lower numbers represented positive responses, i.e. 1 = Definitely Yes vs 10 = Definitely No. The survey was distributed with a very short verbal explanation encouraging students to answer all the questions. The written instruction read:

> We would like to know more about your attitudes and perceptions of women in management. Please answer the questions indicating the first response that comes to mind.

The instructions emphasized first impressions in an attempt to discourage students from making studied responses that they felt were socially acceptable rather than their own feelings. Students

physically wrote in or circled their answers. The completed surveys were manually entered into a database.

2018. The online survey was constructed within the software program "SurveyGizmo." The majority of the questions were again answered on a 10-point Likert scale. Respondents just had to click on the numbered scale points to indicate their responses.

The instructions read:

> We would like to know more about your attitudes and perceptions of women in management.   Please answer the questions indicating the first response that comes to mind. At the end of the survey, there will be an opportunity to send in your email address to enter a raffle for fifteen $10 Target gift cards. The survey should not take more than 10 minutes to complete. Thank you for your participation!

Attitudes Towards Career Women

The first question on both surveys, "How acceptable do you feel it is for a woman to pursue her own career, even if she is married and has a family?" was anchored with 1=Definitely Yes, and 10 = Definitely No. A follow-up question repeated the same wording with subjects projecting how acceptable it was to "Others."

A third question investigated, "Are female executives presently accepted as the equals of male executives?"   The follow-up question, "In how many years do you predict it will take before management equality for women is achieved?" had different formats for recording answers. In 1988, respondents were asked to enter a number in a blank space. In 2018, to avoid any hand data entry, the responses were fixed alternatives: Already, Never and in 10, 20, or 50 years.

Gender Preferences for Bosses

Both surveys asked students, "If you were forced to choose, whom would you prefer as your boss?" There were only the two-gender choices as alternatives in order to force a choice, rather than the socially acceptable option, "doesn't matter.". The follow-up question was, "How significant is the boss's gender to your job satisfaction?"

To further investigate students' gender choices for a boss, subjects were given three situations where they were asked to select who the preferred boss would be. The three groups were an all-male group, an all-female group, and a mixed-gender group. The question indicated that the credentials of the male and female candidates were equal, and the only difference was their gender.

Descriptions of Male and Female Managers

In both investigations, subjects were presented with two sets of 20 semantic differential scales upon which to describe a male, and then a female manager. Responses were made on a 10-point scale. The instructions were simple: "Describe a male (female) manager."

Results

Sample

1988. The survey was distributed to 210 students during class. The administration resulted in 202 usable surveys (females n =103; males n = 99). The average age was 23.7 years for males and 24.6 years for females. The racial breakdown was as follows: White, 77%; Black, 14%; Hispanic, 4%; Asian, 4%; Other, 1%. Marital status was single 82%; married, 15%; divorced 3%. Not having had a female boss was reported by 25% of the females, and 35% of the males.

2018. A total of 280 upperclassmen participated in the online survey with 270 being considered useable (females n= 158; males n=112). The racial breakdown was as follows: White, 65%; Black, 15%, Hispanic, 12%; Asian, 5%; Other 3%. Unlike the earlier study where subjects wrote in their age, this group was asked to click-on which interval their age fell in. This sample was younger, with an average age of approximately 22 years old. Only 6% indicated they were married, with 4% indicating divorced. In this group, only 8% of the men and women reported not having experience with a woman as a boss.

Attitudes Towards Career Women

1988/2018 Personal Acceptance. The response to, "How acceptable do you feel it is for a woman to pursue her own career, even if she is married and has children?" has moved in a positive approval direction. Male students in 1988 were significantly less accepting of the dual role than the female students (Women = 2.38, Men = 2.97; t = 2.16, p < .05). Although there was no significant difference between genders in the 2018 sample (Women = 1.57, Men = 1.60), the results demonstrated a significantly greater degree (t=3.51, p < .001) of personal acceptance over the 30-year period for both genders

1988/2018 "Others" Acceptance. Women in 1988 reported a significantly more negative perception regarding the acceptance of "Others" to a career woman than male students (Men = 6.02, Women = 6.91, t = 2.71, p < .01). In 2018, women also reported less acceptance by "Others" of career women than the men reported (Males = 3.51, Women = 4.64, p < .001). For the total sample in 2018, the contrast between personal acceptance and the perception of society's acceptance was extreme (t=14.8, p <.0001).

Boss Preference

1988. To the question, "If you were forced to choose, whom would you prefer for your boss?" 60% of the men checked a preference for a male boss (z = 2.00, p <.05); 67% of the women also checked a male boss preference (z = 3.40, p < .001). Tests of significance were based on a p = .5 hypothesized preference for each gender.

Men with no working experience with a woman boss reported that the boss's gender would be a significant factor in determining their job satisfaction compared to males who had experience with a female boss. (experience = 8.11 n=64; no experience = 6.69, n = 33; t= 2.48 p < .01).

2018. Women preferred a female boss 79% of the time, while 66% of males showed a preference for a male boss. Against the null hypothesis of p=.5, both groups showed a signifi-cant tendency to choose a boss of the congruent gender (z < .0001).

Bosses' gender was less of an issue for male subjects than for the females, although both minimized gender importance to their job satisfaction. (Females =7.51, Males = 8.18, t=2.20, p < .05) For males who reported never having a woman boss (n=18), there was no significant difference in their response from males who had worked for a woman.

1988. Table 1 presents the choices the sample chose as the boss for the three configured groups. In 1988 male managers were chosen by both male and female students as the overwhelming (p < .001) choice of an all-male group and of a mixed workgroup. Male respondents were inclined to predict a greater preference for a female manager in an all-female workgroup than female respondents, although this difference reached only p < .10 level of significance.

Table 1

Management Gender Preference (%)

Respondents' preference	All Male Group			
	Males 1 *	Males 2**	Females 1*	Females 2 **
Male Boss	93	95	93	90
Female Boss	7	5	7	10

	All Female Group			
	Males 1	Males 2	Females 1	Females 2
Male Boss	39	29	54	29
Female Boss	61	71	46	71

	Mixed Group			
	Males 1	Males 2	Females 1	Females 2
Male Boss	82	62	81	75
Female Boss	18	38	19	25

* 1988

** 2018

2018. Both genders thought for the homogeneous groups, a similar sex boss would be the preferred choice. In the mixed group, 75% of female subjects chose a man, while male subjects

chose a man 62% of the time which is significant (chi sq. = 4.614, p <.05). Table 1 indicates respondents' preferences for the three different groups.

Equality in the Workplace

1988. The question, "In how many years do you predict it will take before management equality for women is achieved?" was an open question. Men felt it was going to take on the average 19.4 years, while women predicted an average of 14.0 years. These responses were treated purely as descriptive of students' present perceptions, with no further statistical test made.

2018. Respondents that selected "Never" as their answer to the question, showed a significant difference between the genders. Only 7% of males indicated it would not happen; 15% of women perceived the future as no prospect of equality (p < .05). Examining respondents who indicated equality has already been reached, 19% of males responded that way, while only 7% of females reported so positively (p < .05). The most frequent choice, 44% of the total sample, was that equality would be reached in 10 years.

1988. The question, "Are female executives presently accepted as the equals of male executives?" demonstrated a significant difference between the genders in the way reality was perceived in the workplace in both years. Where "1" was "Definitely Yes," women in 1988 reported significantly more negative perceptions regarding a lack of acceptance then men did. (Men = 6.02; Women = 6.91; t = 2.71, p < .01)

2018. The mean for females was 6.91, while men were more optimistic with a mean of 4.92 (t=5.882, p < .0001).

Descriptions of Male and Female Managers

Factor analysis of the 20 descriptive scales using varimax rotation generated three factors

(eigenvalues > 1.0). Table 2 presents the mean factor scores from both samples.

Table 2

Factor Scores

		Managerial Behavior	Consideration	Initiation of Structure
Male Respondents				
1988	Male Managers	10.20	9.25	10.50
		(1.67)	(1.29)	(1.06)
	Female Managers	9.26	10.01	10.27
		(1.27)	(1.29)	(1.53)
2018	Male Managers	29.61	20.79	23.40
		(10.22)	(8.67)	(8.7)
	Female Managers	29.81	27.17	24.90
		(11.73)	(8.18)	(11.1)
Female Respondents				
1988	Male Managers	9.90	8.90	10.51
		(1.30)	(1.30)	(1.32)
	Female Managers	9.79	10.15	10.09
		(1.27)	(1.37)	(1.63)
2018	Male Managers	34.19	25.17	26.18
		(9.45)	(6.93)	(8.18)
	Female Managers	29.22	29.47	27.9
		(10.99)	(7.16)	(7.19)

1988/2018. The first factor, "Management Behaviors" was weighted heavily with the scales anchored with the terms: *leader, effective, competent, fast, strong, decisive, knowledgeable,* and *active*.

The second factor, "Consideration," contained the scales anchored with such terms as *open, rewarding, friendly, understanding, communicative,* and *soft*.

The third factor, "Initiation of Structure," contained the descriptors *lenient, democratic, people-oriented, happy, family-oriented,* and *easy*. This factor seems to describe the type of team characteristics or the type of atmosphere in the group the manager leads and is a by-product of their leadership style.

1988. Male students rate male managers significantly higher than female managers on Managerial Behaviors (t = 5.25, p < .001) and significantly lower than women managers on Consideration (t = 4.00, p < .001) There was no statistically significant difference in the factor score for Initiation of Structure.

Female respondents scored female managers significantly higher on Consideration (t=6.67, p < .001) than male managers, and lower on Initiation of Structure (t =1.98, p < .05) There was no significant difference in the Managerial Behavior factor.

Comparing factor scores across genders, male students scored male managers higher but not significantly higher on Managerial Behaviors (t = 1.65, p < .10) than the ratings by female students. They also scored male managers significantly higher on Consideration (t = 1.97, p < .05) There was no significant

difference across genders in the mean score for Initiation of Structure

2018. Male respondents described female managers higher in Consideration (p < .0001) The other factors were not significant.

Women scored male managers higher on Managerial Behavior (p <.001), and female managers higher in Consideration (p < .001). There was no significant difference regarding Initiation of Structure.

Comparing the responses of male and female students, women rated male managers higher in Managerial Behavior (p < .001), lower in Consideration (p < .0001), and lower in Initiation of Structure (p < .05).

Comparing the responses of male and female students, women described female managers higher in Consideration than male respondents (p < .05) and also higher on Initiation of Structure (p < 05). There was no significant difference in the mean factor score for Managerial Behavior.

1988. Comparing male students' description of the typical male and female manager, the male manager is described as significantly *stronger* (p < .001), *business-oriented* (p < .001), *decisive* (p < .001), *demanding* (p < .001), *leader* (p < .001), *effective* (p < .01), *task-oriented* (p < .01), *distant* (p < .01), *closed* (p < .01), *active* (p < .05), *knowledgeable* (p < .05), *punishing* (p < .05), and *unreasonable* (p < .05).

Table 3

	*Women=158		*Men=112		**Women=103		**Men=99	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Competent -Incompetent	3.78	3.20	3.16	3.40	2.72	2.23	2.50	2.60
s.d.	1.83	2.01	1.77	2.00	1.19	1.08	1.16	1.25
Slow-Fast	6.70	7.18	7.09	6.67	5.03	4.99	5.09	4.89
	2.17	2.02	2.22	2.20	1.2	1.39	1.03	1.22
Strong-Weak	3.39	3.72	3.10	3.91	2.70	3.14	2.84	3.55
	1.87	2.15	1.88	1.93	1.36	1.34	1.41	1.33
Difficult-Easy	4.80	4.77	4.99	5.15	3.59	3.72	3.68	3.78
	2.06	2.02	2.07	2.25	1.3	1.4	1.11	1.47
Serious-Happy	4.46	5.58	4.17	5.05	3.43	3.49	3.35	3.27
	2.18	2.26	1.91	2.35	1.38	1.59	1.30	1.48
Leader-Follower	3.51	3.52	2.91	3.85	2.48	2.62	2.29	2.93
	2.07	2.04	1.84	2.12	1.45	1.17	1.31	1.42
Active-Passive	4.01	3.62	3.57	3.88	2.85	2.69	2.26	2.70
	2.18	2.01	1.85	2.21	1.50	1.37	1.18	1.38
Business-Family	3.63	5.28	3.51	4.94	2.50	3.27	2.47	3.51
	1.88	2.34	1.81	2.38	1.39	1.55	1.33	1.62
Effective-Ineffective	3.74	3.47	3.35	3.71	2.72	2.51	2.38	2.89
	1.83	1.98	1.94	2.07	1.26	1.20	1.16	1.22
Soft-Hard	6.67	5.18	6.79	5.21	4.98	4.08	4.95	3.94
	2.19	2.04	1.85	2.29	1.26	1.37	1.20	1.35
Rewarding-Punishing	5.31	4.08	5.20	4.16	3.74	3.21	3.64	3.18
	2.03	1.98	1.94	2.25	1.37	1.37	1.35	1.31

Autocratic-Democratic	4.95	5.90	5.08	5.68	3.51	4.33	3.84	4.01
	2.03	2.14	2.01	2.24	1.34	1.47	1.23	1.44
Decisive-Unsure	3.76	3.97	3.42	4.16	2.58	2.71	2.50	3.37
	1.99	2.07	1.91	2.26	1.26	1.36	1.18	1.53
Demanding-Lenient	4.04	4.71	4.16	4.50	2.85	3.22	2.72	3.42
	2.17	2.10	2.18	2.24	1.22	1.41	1.05	1.37
Friendly-Distant	5.04	3.88	4.63	3.69	3.53	2.73	3.52	2.97
	2.05	2.09	2.03	1.96	1.30	1.33	1.31	1.26
Open-Closed	5.48	3.97	5.17	3.66	4.03	2.70	3.64	3.10
	2.29	1.90	2.15	2.03	1.54	1.42	1.36	1.40
Communicative-Secretive	4.84	3.52	4.53	3.74	3.58	2.53	2.88	2.84
	1.89	1.94	2.11	2.14	1.81	1.45	1.43	1.42
Knowledgeable-Knows Nothing	3.69	3.00	3.42	3.56	2.48	2.10	2.26	2.62
	1.89	1.77	1.95	2.16	1.27	1.07	1.15	1.37
Task-oriented-People-oriented	4.31	4.31	3.78	4.66	3.12	3.97	3.25	3.83
	2.16	2.16	2.05	2.66	1.63	1.37	1.51	1.59
Understanding-Unreasonable	5.03	5.03	4.20	3.50	3.73	2.71	3.31	2.93
	2.14	2.14	2.11	2.08	1.47	1.33	1.31	1.27

* 2018
** 1988

Looking at the women's description of both, female students described the woman manager to be more *family-oriented* (p < .001), *communicative* (p < .001) *people-oriented* (p < .001), *soft* (p < .001) *friendly* (p < .001), *understanding* (p < .001), *open* (p < .001), *democratic* (p < .001), *competent* (p < .01) *rewarding* (p < .01) *lenient* (p < .05), *weak* (p < .05) and *knowledgeable* (p <.05) than male managers.

Comparing students' descriptions of female managers, males portrayed female managers as more *unsure* (p < .001), *knows-nothing* (p < .005), *incompetent* (p < .05), *weak* (p < .05), *ineffective* (p < .05), *closed* (p < .05), and more of a *follower* (p <.10).

2018. Male subjects described female managers as more *weak* (p < .001), *follower* (p < .001)**,** *family- oriented* (p < .0001), *soft,* (p < .001), *rewarding* (p < .001), *democratic* (p < .05), *unsure* (p < .01), *friendly* (p <.001), *open* (p < .0001), *communicative* (p < .01), *people-oriented* (p < .01), and more *understanding* (p < .01).

Comparing women's descriptions of male and female managers, women managers are scaled as more *competent* (p < .01), *fast* (p < .05), *happy* (p < .0001), *family-oriented* (p < .0001), *soft* (p < .0001), *rewarding* (p<.0001), *democratic* (p < .0001), *lenient* (p < .01), *friendly* (p < .0001), *open* (p < .0001), *communicative* (p < .0001), *knowledgeable* (p <.001), *people-oriented* (p <.01), and *understanding* (p < .0001) than male managers.

Using responses from the total sample (n=270) comparing male vs female managers on the individual scales, female managers are *weak* (p < .001), *happy* (p < .0001) *follower* (p < .05), *family-oriented* (p < .0001), *soft* (p < .0001), *rewarding* (p < .0001), *democratic* (p < .0001), *unsure* (p < .01), and more *lenient* (p < .01).

Tables 4A and 4B present the descriptors that were significant across at least three sets of data.

Discussion of Results

Sample

The major difference in the sample profile was an increase from 4% Hispanic to 12%. This reflects that the fastest-growing ethnic group in Connecticut is Hispanic.

Attitudes Towards Career Women

The comparison of the first two questions on both surveys is a key indicator that there has been a significant change in male attitudes. Some change would be expected since more women have entered the management ranks over the three decades. In terms of personal acceptance, we see a very significant positive move towards acceptance of a wife/mother pursuing a career over the 30-year period. With the often necessary financial reliance on two-paycheck families, this result could have been expected.

What was not expected was the strong perception that "Others" were not as accepting of career women as the respondents. Looking at the total sample, the discrepancy between self-accepting and "Others" reached p < .0001 significance.

Table 4A
Significant Descriptors of Male Bosses

| Men | | Women | |
| 1988 | 2018 | 1988 | 2018 |
Male Boss	Male Boss	Male Boss	Male Boss
strong	strong		
business- oriented	business-oriented	business-oriented	business- oriented
hard		hard	hard
decisive	decisive		
demanding		demanding	demanding
leader	leader		
effective			
task-oriented	task-oriented	task-oriented	task-oriented
distant	distant		
closed	closed	closed	closed
active			
knowledgeable		knowledgeable	knows nothing
punishing	punishing	punishing	punishing
unreasonable	unreasonable	unreasonable	unreasonable
	autocratic	autocratic	autocratic
	serious		serious
	secretive	secretive	secretive
		distant	distant
		incompetent	incompetent
		strong	
			slower

Table 4B
Significant Descriptors of Female Bosses

| Men | | Women | |
| 1988 | 2018 | 1988 | 2018 |
Female Boss	Female Boss	Female Boss	Female Boss
weak	weak		
follower	follower		
	family-oriented	family-oriented	family-oriented
	soft	soft	soft
	rewarding	rewarding	rewarding
	democratic	democratic	democratic
unsure	unsure		
	friendly	friendly	friendly
closed	open		open
	communicative	communicative	communicative
	people-oriented	people-oriented	people-oriented
	understanding		understanding
incompetent		competent	competent
			faster
			happy
		lenient	lenient
knows nothing		knowledgeable	knowledgeable
ineffective			
		weak	

If the perception is that society does not support working women, there may be a tendency not to select a woman even if it runs contra to their own feelings on the matter. This could be a factor in the low participation rate of women in the higher level of management positions.

Notably, women are even more negative in their perceptions of women's acceptance in in the later study. Certainly, this point of view may demoralize young women from aggressively pursuing advancement. This supports the results in the next question.

Equality in the Workplace

1988. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 forbids discrimination in the workplace. That was the law of the land for 24 years when the first study was conducted. The students at that time felt it would take about another 20 years to make women whole. Certainly, the quest for gender equality is going far more slowly than the estimates given in 1988.

2018. With this second study, 30 years later, only 19% of the males and 7% of the females feel the struggle has been won. An estimate of another 10 years was the majority response. If that turns out to be correct, it would mean it has taken society 54 years to deal with an issue that affects 51% of the population. Having said that, 15% of the university female students sampled here still don't think equality will ever happen. This is especially true if the operating condition is that "Others" in general don't accept professional married women.

Gender Preferences for Boss

1988/2018. In 1988, male boss was checked 60% of the time as the personal preference of male respondents. In 2018, this preference rose to 66%. However, the big difference was in the women's response. In 1988, 33% of the women preferred a woman, while in 2018 women indicated a 79% preference for a woman. As the percentage of women in the workforce has increased in 30 years, more of these students have experienced working or observing women in management and this familiarity makes it more likely a woman would be a reasonable choice.

All respondents in both studies indicated a definite preference ($\leq$ 90%) for gender congruence with a male boss in an all-male group. This is true as well in both studies where the majority of males (61%, 71%) noted that the preferred boss of an all-female group was another woman. This support was only 54% from female respondents in 1988 i.e. a greater percentage of men backed a female boss for an all-female group than women did. But not so in 2018 where 71% of the females preferred a woman boss in an all-women's group. Although this was a meaningful shift in support, it only tied the percentage chosen by men. One must wonder why women wouldn't support a woman in almost any management situation especially when it is noted her qualifications were the same as the man's to the same degree, over 90% as they did a male boss with a male group.

The lack of support for women in management positions by other women is reflected in the preference stated for the mixed-configured group. The male boss was the overwhelming

preference for the mixed group in all four sets of findings. One positive result is that in 2018 a greater percentage chose a woman, but it was weak support. In fact, in 2018, 38% of male respondents selected a preference for a woman while it was only 25% from the women. Women don't seem to go out of their way to support women in management positions, even when the position is imaginary on paper.

Description of Male and Female Managers

1988. The factor component, Managerial Behavior contains descriptors that most would agree are a major factor in success as a manager i.e. *leader, effective, task-oriented.* Male respondents rated male managers significantly higher on this factor (p < .0001) than female managers. On Consideration (*lenient, friendly, soft*) female managers were significantly higher (p < .0001). There was no significant difference in the Initiation of Structure factor (*happy, family-oriented, easy*)

There was no significant difference in the Managerial Behavior factor for female respondents. They did rate female managers higher in Consideration (p < .0001). There was no difference in Initiation of Structure.

2018. Male respondents rated female managers significantly higher in Consideration   (p <.0001). There were no significant differences with the other two factors. A key finding here is that the significant difference in 1988 on the Managerial Behavior factor no longer exists.

Female Respondents describe male managers higher in Managerial Behavior   (p < .001).Women are significantly higher in Consideration (p < .0001). There was no significant difference in Initiation of Structure.

Female students appear to have even a more positive view of men as managers than male students. (Men rated men and women the same on Managerial Behavior). This is probably why a greater percentage of female students selected a male manager for the mixed-gender group – they really believe men are better managers than women.

1988/2018. Looking at the traits that reached significance on at least three of the four description sets, there is a strong level of agreement, especially for male managers. The words used to describe men are *business-oriented, hard, task-oriented, closed, unreasonable, demanding, punishing, autocratic* and *secretive.* Respondents appear to be describing the stereotypical "is all-business" individual who wants the job done, and cares little if s/he is liked by subordinates

The scales that were found in common for a female manager coincides with the stereotypical description often used for women. The frequent descriptors are *family-oriented, friendly, people-oriented, soft, rewarding democratic,* and *communicative.* Certainly, relevant terms for a social work type job, but not traits often used to describe an executive at any level.

Conclusion

The essential conclusion from this research is that the stereotypical perceptions that existed 30 years ago seem to be undergoing change, but not necessarily in the same direction. One important change is male respondents in 2018 did not see a significant difference in their Managerial Behavior factor scores between the genders as they did in 1988. Women managers are described as having a similar set of managerial characteristics as the descriptions of male managers. Results from Duehr & Bono (2006) also revealed a considerable change in male managers' views of women over the past 30 years, as evidenced by "greater congruence between their perceptions of women and successful managers and stronger endorsement of agentic and task-oriented leadership characteristics for women." This change bodes well for women to be selected by men to move up the management ladder.

There was also a change in the Managerial Behavior score for men as rated by female students. Female subjects in 2018, evaluated men with significantly higher Managerial Behavior factor scores when there was no significant difference in 1988. These young female college students perceive men demonstrating more of the characteristics generally attached to successful managers. In other words, "Think manager-Think men." This change foretells that women may not select a woman for a management vacancy if there is a male with similar credentials. This is especially true if women believe men having ingrained in their behavioral domain more of what a successful manager must possess. This point of view is probably the basis of why 75% of these same women chose a male boss for the mixed-gender group. Male respondents chose a woman significantly more often.

On the positive side, 12% more women indicated a personal preference for a female boss in 2018 than in 1988, although bosses' gender seems not to be a factor in job satisfaction.

Female students in 2018 don't perceive a level playing field in obtaining managerial positions. This in spite of 50 years of Affirmative Action, and the current acknowledgment that diversity is a component of organizational success. Even more disheartening is the fact that there is a portion of young females who don't believe women will ever have equality. In a way, this may be a product of their perception that the outside world does not approve of a female pursuing a career when they are married and have children. This does correspond to the findings of Carson et al (2006) that women express notably less faith that complete acceptance is in the offing. And that men's perceptions are overly rosy.

A question arises with the significant results that these 2018 men are more accepting of a career woman than in 1988. If they are so accepting, why are they so negative about their friends and acquaintances, in other words, "Others" attitudes? One has to wonder would they really support their wife's career if they were feeling peer pressure that the place for a woman is home taking care of the kids. This might be the case of responding with the socially acceptable or politically expedient response when they are answering for themselves.

The evidence points to the fact that the 2018 female students believe males possess more of the traits seen in successful managers than they do. The important question is why the deterioration of managerial self-image in these 30 years. In 1988, women did not describe male managers significantly higher on the Managerial Behavior factor. This is a significant finding of this study. Maybe the unconscious rationale is "we are not equal now, nor may we ever be and the reason for that is we are not as good as men." What they do have is high scores in Consideration. Consideration probably has more of a role in developing a transformational leadership style than the transactional Managerial Behavior traits. Women apparently don't see this natural advantage.

The terms used to describe male managers, the higher Managerial Behavior score, and the fact female respondents more often selected a male boss for a mixed-gender group indicates that females supporting other females for higher-level corporate positions will be infrequent. Most of the job growth probably will happen in female-dominated jobs, where the adjectives used in the Consideration factor to describe women managers are more appropriate for positions in fields related to teaching and caring.

The results of this study are disheartening. Stereotypes are difficult to break when they are part of the dominant culture. Nevertheless, the amount of social change that has occurred in 30 years has been astounding. Looking at cultural changes in issues such as gay marriages, and stay-at-home dads, etc. show there have been modifications in gender roles that are now "acceptable." Not so for women participants in this study.

What is also discouraging is the critical implication of this investigation. It does not appear that this generation of college-age women will be championing a new, more "executive" profile for female managers. Perhaps, someone else will do a similar study to this one in another 30 years and find that women finally use the same words and traits they apply to men – effective, leader, and business-oriented – as they apply to themselves.

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